

The Exponential map on the Cayley-Dickson algebras

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Abstract: We study the Exponential map for $\mathbb{A}_n = \mathbb{R}^{2^n}$, the Cayley-Dickson algebras for $n \geq 1$, which generalize the complex exponential map to Quaternions, Octonions and so forth. As an application, we show that the selfmap of the unit sphere in \mathbb{A}_n , $S(\mathbb{A}_n) = S^{2^n-1}$, given by taking k -powers has topological degree k for k an integer number, from this we derive a suitable “Fundamental Theorem of Algebra for \mathbb{A}_n .”

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Introduction. The Cayley-Dickson algebras $\mathbb{A}_n = \mathbb{R}^{2^n}$, for $n \geq 0$ are given by the doubling process of Dickson [1].

For a, b, x and y in \mathbb{A}_n and $\mathbb{A}_{n+1} = \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_n$.

$$(a, b)(x, y) = (ax - \bar{y}b, ya + b\bar{x})$$

and for x_1, x_2 in \mathbb{A}_{n-1} , $\bar{x} = (\bar{x}_1, -x_2)$ when $x = (x_1, x_2)$.

Thus, if $\bar{x} = x$ in $\mathbb{A}_0 = \mathbb{R}$ then $\mathbb{A}_1 = \mathbb{C}$ the Complex numbers, $\mathbb{A}_2 = \mathbb{H}$ the Quaternionic numbers; $\mathbb{A}_3 = \mathbb{O}$ the Octonions numbers and so forth.

As is well known (see [7] and [8]) \mathbb{A}_n is commutative only for $n = 0$ and $n = 1$; \mathbb{A}_n is associative only for $n = 0, 1, 2$; \mathbb{A}_n is *alternative* (i.e., $x^2y = x(xy)$ and $xy^2 = x(yx)$) for all x and y in \mathbb{A}_n only if $n = 0, 1, 2, 3$.

Also \mathbb{A}_n is *flexible* (i.e., $x(yx) = (xy)x$ for all x and y in \mathbb{A}_n) and *power-associative* (i.e. $x^m x^k = x^{m+k}$ for all x and y in \mathbb{A}_n and m and k natural numbers) for all $n \geq 0$.

By the classical theorem of Hurwitz: \mathbb{A}_n is *normed* (i.e., $\|xy\| = \|x\|\|y\|$ for all x and y in \mathbb{A}_n) if and only if $n = 0, 1, 2, 3$ where $\| - \|$ denotes the standard norm in \mathbb{R}^{2^n} .

Now $\{e_0 = 1, e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{2^n-1}\}$ denotes the canonical basis in \mathbb{R}^{2^n}

$$\mathbb{A}_n = \mathbb{R}e_0 \oplus \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$$

where $\mathbb{R}e_0 = \text{Span}\{e_0\}$ are the real elements in \mathbb{A}_n and

$$\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n) := \text{Span}\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{2^n-1}\}$$

are the pure imaginary elements in \mathbb{A}_n . Thus, for every x in \mathbb{A}_n we have a canonical splitting of x into real and imaginary parts: $x = re_0 + a$ where $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and $a \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$.

Now for all x in \mathbb{A}_n $\|x\|^2 = x\bar{x} = \bar{x}x$ and $2\langle x, y \rangle = x\bar{y} + y\bar{x}$ where $\langle -, - \rangle$ denotes the standard inner product in \mathbb{R}^{2^n} . Thus for $a \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$, $\bar{a} = -a$ and $a^2 = -\|a\|^2$ and

$$\langle xy, z \rangle = \langle y, \bar{x}z \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \langle x, yz \rangle = \langle x\bar{z}, y \rangle$$

for all x, y and z in \mathbb{A}_n (see [5]).

The main subject of this paper is the Exponential map

$$\exp(x) = e_0 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^m}{m!} + \dots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!} \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{A}_n.$$

In § 1, we prove that $\exp(x)$ is well defined, that is, converges for all $n \geq 0$ and that some properties of the complex exponential map are also valid for $n > 1$.

In §2 we show that the exponential map is surjective, and that restricted to $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ it maps onto $S(\mathbb{A}_n) = S^{2^n-1}$, the unit sphere in \mathbb{A}_n ; also we prove that the k -power map is well defined for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and has topological degree k .

In § 3 we use the results of the previous sections to prove the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra (F.T.of A.) for \mathbb{A}_n $n \geq 2$, which generalizes the F.T. of A. for Quaternions of Eilenberg-Niven [2] that goes back to 1949.

First, we present an *Algebraic* generalization of the F.T. of A. which only considers polynomials where the variable and the coefficients have linearly dependent imaginary part. This version of the F.T. of A. is a straightforward generalization of the classical F.T. of A. for \mathbb{C} .

Secondly, we present a *Topological* generalization of the F.T. of A. for “polynomials of degree k ” which are continuous functions inside the homotopy class of the k -power map on $\mathbb{A}_n \cup \{\infty\} = S^{2^n}$ for each $k > 0$.

We will show, as well, that the topological F.T. of A. generalizes the Algebraic F. T. of A.

I. Basic Properties.

Throughtout this paper, we use extensively that $\mathbb{R}e_0$ is the Center of \mathbb{A}_n for all $n \geq 1$ and that for x, y and z in \mathbb{A}_n $(xy)z = x(yz)$ if at least one of them is a real element.

Definition: For $x \in \mathbb{A}_n$, $\exp(x) = e_0 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{m!}$

where e_0 is the unit element in \mathbb{A}_n .

Clearly for $x = re_0$ for $r \in \mathbb{R}$, $\exp(x) = e^r e_0$ where e^r is the usual real exponent map on \mathbb{A}_0 . In particular if 0 in \mathbb{A}_n is the null element

$$\exp(0) = e^0 e_0 = 1 \cdot e_0 = e_0$$

.

Lemma 1.1 If a is a non-zero element in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ then

$$\exp(a) = \cos(\|a\|)e_0 + \sin(\|a\|)\frac{a}{\|a\|}.$$

Proof: Since $a \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ then $a^2 = -||a||^2$ so $a^{2k} = (-1)^k ||a||^{2k}$ and $a^{2k+1} = a^{2k}a = (-1)^k ||a||^{2k}a$ for $k \geq 0$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(a) &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^m}{m!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k ||a||^{2k}}{(2k)!} e_0 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k ||a||^{2k}}{(2k+1)!} a \\ &= \cos(||a||) e_0 + \frac{1}{||a||} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k ||a||^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} a \\ &= \cos(||a||) e_0 + \sin(||a||) \frac{a}{||a||}\end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

Corollary 1.2 For non-zero s in \mathbb{R} and a non-zero in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$

$$||\exp(a)|| = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \exp(sa) = \cos(s||a||) + \sin(s||a||) \frac{a}{||a||}.$$

Proof: $||\exp(a)||^2 = \cos^2(||a||) + \sin^2(a) \frac{||a||}{||a||} = 1$.

Since $\frac{s}{||s||}$ is equal to 1 for $s > 0$ and equal to -1 for $s < 0$ and cosine and sine are even and odd function respectively then

$$\begin{aligned}\exp(sa) &= \cos(||sa||) e_0 + \sin(||sa||) \frac{sa}{||sa||} \\ &= \cos(|s|||a||) e_0 + \sin(|s|||a||) \frac{sa}{|s|||a||} \\ &= \cos(s||a||) e_0 + \sin(s||a||) \frac{a}{||a||}.\end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

Theorem 1.3 For x in \mathbb{A}_n and $n \geq 1$, the series $\exp(x)$ converges.

If $x = re_0 + a$ for $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and a in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ then

$$\exp(x) = e^r(\exp(a))$$

where e^r is the real exponent map.

Proof: A direct calculation shows that

$$e^r(\exp(a)) = \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{r^m}{m!} \right) \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^m}{m!} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= (e_0 + re_0 + \frac{r^2 e_0}{2!} + \dots)(e_0 + a + \frac{a^2}{2!} + \dots) \\
&= e_0 + re_0 + a + \frac{r^2 e_0}{2!} + ra + \frac{a^2}{2!} + \dots \\
&= e_0 + (re_0 + a) + \frac{(re_0 + a)^2}{2!} + \dots \\
&= \exp(x)
\end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

Corollary 1.4. For x in \mathbb{A}_n , $||\exp(x)|| = e^r$, where r is the real part of x .

Proof:

$$||\exp(x)|| = ||e^r \exp(a)|| = |e^r| ||\exp(a)|| = |e^r| = e^r.$$

by Theorem 1.3 and Corollary 1.2.

Q.E.D.

Example: The known complex identities $e^{\frac{i\pi}{2}} = i$ and $e^{i\pi} = -1$ correspond in \mathbb{A}_n for $n \geq 1$ to $\exp(\frac{a\pi}{2}) = a$ and $\exp(\pi a) = -e_0$ respectively for every a in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ such that $||a|| = 1$.

Now we show that, the identity $e^{z+w} = e^z \cdot e^w$ in \mathbb{C} can be generalized to \mathbb{A}_n for $n \geq 1$, to certain extent.

Definition: Two elements in \mathbb{A}_n for $n \geq 1$ are Complex dependent or \mathbb{C} -dependent if their respective pure imaginary parts are linearly dependent.

Notice that, every element in \mathbb{A}_n is \mathbb{C} -dependent with any real element and that, for $n = 1$ every two elements are \mathbb{C} -dependent, because $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_1) = \mathbb{R}e_1$.

Also notice that for every x in \mathbb{A}_n , $\exp(x)$ and x are \mathbb{C} -dependent.

Lemma 1.5 Let x and y be in \mathbb{A}_n for $n \geq 1$.

- (i) If x and y are \mathbb{C} -dependent then $xy = yx$.
- (ii) For $n = 2$ and $n = 3$, we have that, x and y are \mathbb{C} -dependent if and only if $xy = yx$.

Proof: First of all, we observe that two elements in \mathbb{A}_n commute if and only if their respective imaginary parts commute.

Let $x = re_0 + a$ and $y = se_0 + b$ in $\mathbb{R}e_0 \oplus \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n) = \mathbb{A}_n$. So

$$\begin{aligned} xy &= (re_0 + a)(se_0 + b) = (rse_0 + rb + sa + ab) \\ yx &= (se_0 + b)(re_0 + a) = (sre_0 + sa + rb + ba) \end{aligned}$$

Then $xy = yx$ if and only if $ab = ba$.

Suppose that $b = ta$ with t in \mathbb{R} then $ab = a(ta) = (ta)a = ba$ and we are done with (1).

Now notice that if $ab = ba$ for a and b in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ then (ab) is real, because $\overline{ab} = \overline{ba} = (-b)(-a) = ba = ab$. Moreover, since $2\langle a, b \rangle = \overline{ab} + \overline{ba} = -ab - ba = -2(ab)$ then $\langle a, b \rangle e_0 = -ab$.

To prove (ii) recall that for $n = 2$ and $n = 3$ we have that $a(ab) = a^2b$ so $a(ab) = -a(\langle a, b \rangle e_0)$ implies $a^2b = -||a||^2b = -\langle a, b \rangle a$ and a and b are linearly dependent.

Q.E.D.

Remarks: 1.-Notice that the presence of zero divisors in \mathbb{A}_n for $n \geq 4$, makes possible to have non-zero elements a and b in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ with $ab = ba = 0$ and a orthogonal to b (see [5]).

2.- A further study shows that for a in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ and $n \geq 4$, the Centralizer of a , defined by $C_a := \{b \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n) | ab = ba\}$ is given by

$$C_a = \mathbb{R}a \oplus \text{Ker}L_a.$$

where $\text{Ker}L_a$ is the right annihilator of a .

3.- A characterization of \mathbb{C} -dependence is given by: For x and y in \mathbb{A}_n .

x and y are \mathbb{C} -dependent if and only if $x(z y) = (x z)y$ for all z in \mathbb{A}_n .

(See [3], [4] and [6]). (We will not use this).

Lemma 1.6 Let a and b be in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ for $n \geq 2$. If a and b are linearly dependent then

$$\exp(a + b) = \exp(a)\exp(b).$$

Proof: Notice that if either a or b is null then the assertion is trivial.

Suppose that neither a nor b are null then there is non-zero real number s such that $b = sa$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(b) &= \cos(||sa||)e_0 + \sin(||sa||)\frac{sa}{||sa||} \quad (\text{Lemma 1.1}). \\ &= \cos(s||a||)e_0 + \sin(s||a||)\frac{a}{||a||} \quad (\text{Corollary 1.2}) \end{aligned}$$

Now by the standard trigonometric identities for addition of angles for cosine and sine we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\exp(a)\exp(b) &= (\cos(\|a\|)e_0 + \sin(\|a\|)\frac{a}{\|a\|})(\cos(s\|a\|) + \sin(s\|a\|)\frac{a}{\|a\|}) \\
&= [\cos(\|a\|)\cos(s\|a\|) - \sin(\|a\|)\sin(s\|a\|)]e_0 \\
&\quad + [\cos(\|a\|)\sin(s\|a\|) + \sin(\|a\|)\cos(s\|a\|)]\frac{a}{\|a\|} \\
&= [\cos(\|a\| + s\|a\|)]e_0 + \sin(\|a\| + s\|a\|)\frac{a}{\|a\|} \\
&= (\cos(\|a + sa\|))e_0 + (\sin(\|a + sa\|))\frac{a + sa}{\|a + sa\|} \\
&= \exp(a + b)
\end{aligned}$$

because of $a^2 = -\|a\|^2 e_0$ and Corollary 1.2.

Q.E.D.

Theorem 1.7 If x and y are \mathbb{C} -dependent in \mathbb{A}_n and $n \geq 1$ then

$$\exp(x + y) = \exp(x)\exp(y)$$

Proof: Suppose that $x = re_0 + a$ and $y = se_0 + b$ in $\mathbb{R}e_0 \oplus \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ so $x + y = (r + s)e_0 + (a + b)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\exp(x + y) &= e^{r+s}(\exp(a + b)) = e^{r+s}(\exp(a)\exp(b)) \\
&= (e^r \exp(a))(e^s \exp(b)) \\
&= \exp(x)\exp(y).
\end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

Remark: Theorem 1.7 is the best possible in the following sense:

For $n = 1$. Theorem 1.7 correspond to the exponential law.

For $n \geq 2$. Assume that $\exp(x + y) = \exp(x)\exp(y)$ for some x and y in \mathbb{A}_n then we are forced to have, at least, the following two conditions: $xy = yx$ and $x(xy) = x^2y$.

Now if a and b are the pure parts of x and y respectively, then $xy = yx$ if and only if $ab = ba$ and $x^2y = x(xy)$ if and only if $a^2b = a(ab)$. (See [6])

If $ab = ba$ then $ab = -\langle a, b \rangle e_0$ so $-||a||^2 b = a^2 b = a(ab) = -\langle a, b \rangle e_0$ and a and b are linearly dependent. (Notice that $ab \neq 0$ because $a(ab) = a^2 b \neq 0$).

Proposition 1.8. For x in \mathbb{A}_n and $n \geq 1$.

- (i) $\exp(\overline{x}) = \overline{\exp(x)}$.
- (ii) $\exp(-x) = \exp(x)^{-1}$

Proof: Suppose that $x = re_0 + a$ in $\mathbb{R}e_0 \oplus \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ then $\overline{x} = re_0 - a$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(\overline{x}) &= \exp(re_0 - a) = e^r(\exp(-a)) = e^r(\cos(||a||)e_0 + \sin(||a||)(-\frac{a}{||a||})) \\ &= e^r((\cos(||a||)e_0 - \sin(||a||)\frac{a}{||a||})) \\ &= \overline{\exp(x)}. \end{aligned}$$

so we are done with (i).

To prove (ii) recall for non-zero y in \mathbb{A}_n , by definition, $y^{-1} = ||y||^{-2}\overline{y}$ so

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(x)^{-1} &= ||\exp(x)||^{-2r} \exp(\overline{x}) \quad \text{by (1)} \\ &= e^{-2r}(e^r(\exp(-a))) = e^{-r} \exp(-a) \\ &= \exp(-x) \end{aligned}$$

Corollary 1.9 For x in \mathbb{A}_n and k in \mathbb{Z} .

$$\exp(kx) = (\exp(x))^k \quad (\text{De Moivre's Formula}).$$

Proof: For $k = 0$. The assertion is trivial.

For $k > 0$. The proof is straight-forward using the addition of angles identities, for sine and cosine respectively and induction on k .

For $k < 0$. The proof follows from case $k > 0$ and Proposition 1.8 (ii).

Q.E.D.

II. The exponential map the and k -power map.

$S(\mathbb{A}_n) = S^{2^n-1}$ denotes the unit sphere in $\mathbb{A}_n = \mathbb{R}^{2^n}$.

Theorem 2.1 The exponential map $\exp: \mathbb{A}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n \setminus \{0\}$ and its restriction $\exp: \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_n)$ are onto maps for all $n \geq 1$.

Proof: By Corollary 1.2 we know that $\exp(\operatorname{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)) \subset S(\mathbb{A}_n)$.

Suppose that $y = se_0 + b$ for b in $\operatorname{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ and s in \mathbb{R} with $\|y\|^2 = s^2 + \|b\|^2 = 1$.

If $b = 0$ then $s^2 = 1$ and $s = \mp 1$ and $y = \mp e_0$ but $\exp(0) = e_0$ and $\exp(\pi c) = -e_0$ for all $c \in S(\mathbb{A}_n)$.

Suppose that $b \neq 0$ in $\operatorname{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ then there is a real number θ such that $0 < \theta < \pi$ with $s = \cos(\theta)$ and $\|b\| = \sin(\theta)$.

Let us define a as the non-zero element in $\operatorname{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ of norm θ and linearly dependent to b , this means,

$$\|a\| = \theta \quad \text{and} \quad \|b\| \left(\frac{a}{\|a\|} \right) = b.$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(a) &= \cos(\|a\|)e_0 + \sin(\|a\|) \frac{a}{\|a\|} \\ &= \cos(\theta)e_0 + \sin(\theta) \frac{b}{\|b\|} \\ &= se_0 + b \\ &= y. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\exp: \operatorname{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_n)$ is onto.

Now suppose that $y \neq 0$ in \mathbb{A}_n then $\|y\|^{-1}y$ is in $S(\mathbb{A}_n)$ so there is a in $\operatorname{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ such that $\exp(a) = \|y\|^{-1}y$ then

$$\|y\|\exp(a) = y.$$

But the real exponent map $e: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is onto, so there is r in \mathbb{R}^+ such that $\|y\| = e^r$ and if $x = re_0 + a$ we have that

$$\exp(x) = e^r \exp(a) = y$$

Q.E.D.

Now we study the k -power map $x \mapsto x^k$ for k in \mathbb{Z} .

Lemma 2.2 For $k > 0$ and x in \mathbb{A}_n we have

$$(1) \quad \overline{(x^k)} = (\overline{x})^k$$

- (2) $||x||^k = ||x^k||$
(3) If $x \neq 0$ then $(x^{-1})^k = (x^k)^{-1}$

Proof: Notice that for $k = 1$ (1), (2) and (3) are trivial. So we assume that $k \geq 2$.

(1) We proceed by induction on k .

Recall that for x and y in \mathbb{A}_n , $\overline{xy} = \overline{y} \overline{x}$ so $(\overline{x})^2 = (\overline{x})(\overline{x}) = \overline{xx} = \overline{(x^2)}$. Suppose now that $(\overline{x})^k = \overline{(x^k)}$. Then $(\overline{x})^{k+1} = (\overline{x})^k(\overline{x}) = \overline{(x^k)}\overline{x} = \overline{xx^k} = \overline{(x^{k+1})}$ and (1) is done.

(2) Notice that for x and y in \mathbb{A}_n if $\overline{x}(xy) = (\overline{xx})y = ||x||^2 y$ then

$$||xy|| = ||x|| ||y||$$

because

$$||xy||^2 = \langle xy, xy \rangle = \langle y, \overline{x}(xy) \rangle = \langle y, ||x||^2 y \rangle = ||x||^2 \langle y, y \rangle = ||x||^2 ||y||^2$$

We also notice that $\overline{x}(xy) = (\overline{xx})y$ if and only if $x(xy) = x^2 y$, because $(\overline{x} + x)$ is real and hence associates with any other two elements in \mathbb{A}_n so, in particular

$$\overline{x}(xy) + x(xy) = (\overline{x} + x)(xy) = ((\overline{x} + x)x)y = (\overline{xx})y + x^2 y = ||x||^2 y + x^2 y$$

therefore $\overline{x}(xy) - ||x||^2 y = x^2 y - x(xy)$.

Making $y = x^{k-1}$ for $k \geq 2$ and recalling that \mathbb{A}_n is power associative, we have that $||x^{k+1}|| = ||x(x^{k-1})|| = ||(x^2)|| ||(x^{k-1})||$ for $k \geq 2$. By an obvious induction we are done with (2).

(3) Recall that for $y \neq 0$ in \mathbb{A}_n $y^{-1} = ||y||^{-2} \overline{y}$. Using (1) and (2) we have that for $x \neq 0$

$$(x^{-1})^k = (||x||^{-2} \overline{x})^k = ||x||^{-2k} (\overline{x})^k = (||x||^k)^{-2} \overline{x^k} = ||x^k||^{-2} (\overline{x^k}) = (x^k)^{-1}$$

Q.E.D.

Definition: For nonzero x , $x^{-k} := (x^{-1})^k = (x^k)^{-1}$.

For $k > 0$ $\rho_k : \mathbb{A}_n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n$ is $\rho_k(x) = x^k$.

For $k = 0$ $\rho_0 : \mathbb{A}_n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n$ is $\rho_0(x) = e_0$.

For $k < 0$ $\rho_k : \mathbb{A}_n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n$ is $\rho_k(x) = \rho_{-k}(x^{-1})$.

ρ_k is, by definition, the k -power map for k in \mathbb{Z} ; and clearly $\rho_k \circ \rho_\ell = \rho_{k+\ell}$ for k and ℓ in \mathbb{Z} .

Theorem 2.3 For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\rho_k : S(\mathbb{A}_n) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_n)$ has topological degree k .

Proof: By Lemma 2.2 (2) we have that $\rho_k(S(\mathbb{A}_n)) \subset S(\mathbb{A}_n)$.

Now define $\sigma_k : \mathbb{A}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n$ as $\sigma_k(x) = kx$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now by Corollary 1.9 and Lemma 2.2 (2) and (3) $\exp(\sigma_k(x)) = \rho_k(\exp(x))$.

Therefore $\text{Im } (\mathbb{A}_n)$ can be seen, as the tangent space of $S(\mathbb{A}_n)$ at $x = e_0$, so degree of ρ_k is k .

Q.E.D.

Now we study the k -power map $\rho_k : S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1}) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1}) = S^{2^{n+1}-1}$ restricted to a subsphere of dimension 2^n for $n \geq 1$.

Consider the vector subspace of $\mathbb{A}_{n+1} = \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_n$ where the second coordinate is real in \mathbb{A}_n that is

$$\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0 := \{(x, y)r \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_n \mid y = re_0 \text{ for } r \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Clearly $\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$ is a vector subspace of \mathbb{A}_{n+1} , which is closed under conjugation and inverses; i.e., if $(x, re_0) \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$ then $\overline{(x, re_0)} = (\overline{x}, -re_0) \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$ and for $(x, re_0) \neq (0, 0)$ then $(x, re_0)^{-1} \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$.

Lemma 2.4 The vector subspace $\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$ of \mathbb{A}_{n+1} is closed under k -powers for k in \mathbb{Z} .

Proof: Clearly the cases $k = 0$ and $k = 1$ are obvious. Based on the above observation, the case $k < 0$ follows from the case $k > 0$.

First we check that $\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$ is closed under squaring operation

$$(x, re_0)^2 = (x, re_0)(x, re_0) = (x^2 - r^2e_0, rx + r\overline{x}) = (x^2 - r^2e_0, r(x + \overline{x}))$$

but $(x + \overline{x})$ is real so $(x, re_0)^2 \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$.

Now we proceed by induction on k for $k \geq 2$.

Suppose that $\alpha \in (\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ and that $\alpha^k \in (\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$.

We want to prove that $\alpha^{k+1} \in (\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$.

Since $(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ is vector subspace then $(\alpha^k + \alpha) \in (\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ and because $(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ is closed under the squaring operation we have that $(\alpha^k + \alpha)^2, (\alpha^k)^2 = \alpha^{2k}$ and α^2 are in $\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$.

But, we can associate powers in \mathbb{A}_{n+1} so

$$(\alpha^k + \alpha)^2 = \alpha^{2k} + 2\alpha^{k+1} + \alpha^2.$$

Therefore $\alpha^{k+1} \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0$

Q.E.D.

Remark: We can prove a more general assertion than the one in lemma 2.4.

Let V be a vector subspace of \mathbb{A}_n and define the following vector subspace of \mathbb{A}_{n+1} .

$$\mathbb{A}_n \times V = \{(x, v) \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_n | v \in V\}$$

Clearly these vector subspace is closed under conjugation and inverses and

$$(x, v)^2 = (x^2 - \|v\|^2 e_0, v(\bar{x} + x))$$

But $(\bar{x} + x)$ is real so $\mathbb{A}_n \times V$ is closed under squares by similar argument as in Lemma 2.4. we have that $\mathbb{A}_n \times V$ is closed under k powers for k in \mathbb{Z} .

Corollary 2.5 The k -power map $\rho_k : S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1}) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1})$ restricted to $S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0) = S^{2^n}$ has also topological degree k for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof: Recall that $S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1}) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_n | \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 = 1\}$ thus $S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0) = \{(x, r e_0) \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0 | \|x\|^2 + r^2 = 1\}$.

By Lemma 2.4 and Lemma 2.2 (2) $\rho_k(S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)) \subset S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ and by Theorem 2.3 $\rho_k : S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ has degree k .

Q.E.D.

Remark: Based in the previous remark we may prove that the k power map on $S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1})$ restricted to $S(\mathbb{A}_n \times V)$ has also degree k .

Therefore any continuous map from S^m to itself is homotopic to a k power map for all $m \geq 1$, because the homotopy class of any continuous map is determined by degree (Hopf theorem) and if m is between 2^n and 2^{n+1} we may choose a vector subspace V of \mathbb{A}_n such that $S^m = S(\mathbb{A}_n \times V)$ and the restriction of $\rho_k : S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1}) \rightarrow S(\mathbb{A}_{n+1})$ to $S(\mathbb{A}_n \times V)$ is homotopic to the

original map.

III. Fundamental theorem of algebra for \mathbb{A}_n $n \geq 1$.

Definition: For x non-zero in \mathbb{A}_n , $x = re_0 + a$ in $\mathbb{R}e_0 \oplus \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ and $k > 0$ a k -root of x is

$$\sqrt[k]{x} = ||x||^{1/k} \exp\left(\frac{1}{k}a\right) = e^{r/k} \exp\left(\frac{1}{k}a\right).$$

By Theorem 2.1 every non-zero element in \mathbb{A}_n has (at least) one k -root for $k > 0$.

Example: $x^2 + e_0 = 0$ has infinitely many solutions: every element in the unit sphere, $S(\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n))$ is a solution.

Example: If a is a non-zero pure element in \mathbb{A}_n then $x^k - a = 0$ has exactly k solutions, namely, the set of k -roots of a .

Now we want to extend the fundamental theorem of algebra for $\mathbb{A}_1 = \mathbb{C}$ to \mathbb{A}_n for $n > 1$.

One direct generalization, can be done, on the polynomials which depend only on one imaginary unit in \mathbb{A}_n . That is, we look at the polynomials which are \mathbb{C} -dependent to a given a in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ with $||a|| = 1$. So a plays the same role, for this polynomials, as $e_1 = i$ plays for complex polynomials and we have a Fundamental Theorem of Algebra in this situation.

Lemma 3.1 If x, y and z are non-zero \mathbb{C} -dependent elements in \mathbb{A}_n then

- (i) xy is \mathbb{C} - dependent with z .
- (ii) x^k and y^ℓ are \mathbb{C} -dependent for $k > 0$ and $\ell > 0$
- (iii) $(xy)z = x(yz)$.

Proof: If one of the three elements is real then the results (i), (ii) and (iii) are obvious.

Suppose that, the three elements x, y and z are non-real, that is, they have non-zero imaginary part. Also, is easy to see, that on the subset of \mathbb{A}_n consisting of non-real elements, \mathbb{C} -dependence define an equivalence relation.

Write $x = re_0 + ta$ $y = se_0 + qa$ and $z = ue_0 + va$ where r, t, s, q, u and v are real numbers and $a \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ with $\|a\| = 1$.

Now

- i) $xy = (re_0 + ta)(se_0 + qa) = (rs - tq)e_0 + (rq + ts)a$ and (xy) is \mathbb{C} -dependent with z .

To show (ii) we notice that x is \mathbb{C} -dependent with y^2 , because

$$y^2 = (s^2 - q^2)e_0 + (s + q)a$$

.

Next we proceed by induction on k .

Suppose that x is \mathbb{C} -dependent with x^k and we want to prove that x is \mathbb{C} -dependent with x^{k+1} .

Now $(x^k + x)$, $(x^k + x)^2$, $(x^k)^2$ and x^2 are \mathbb{C} -dependent with x so $(x^k + x)^2 - (x^k)^2 - x^2 = 2x^{k+1}$ and x is \mathbb{C} -dependent with x^{k+1} .

Since \mathbb{C} -dependence is an equivalence relation for non-real elements we are done with (ii).

To prove (iii) recall that (see [5]) the associator $(x, y, z) := (xy)z - x(yz)$ is a tri-linear map that vanishes if one of the entries is real so by flexibility

$$(x, y, z) = (re_0 + ta, se_0 + qa, ue_0 + va) = tqv(a, a, a) = 0.$$

Q.E.D.

Definition: A complex polynomial in \mathbb{A}_n of degree k is a continuous function of the form

$$p(x) = \xi_0 + \xi_1 x + \xi_2 x^2 + \cdots + \xi_{k-1} x^{k-1} + x^k$$

where the coefficients ξ_i are \mathbb{C} -dependent among them and with x , and $i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$.

Notice that every polynomial with real coefficients is a complex polynomial.

Theorem 3.2 Every complex polynomial has at least one root in \mathbb{A}_n .

Proof: This follows from the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra for \mathbb{C} .

Suppose that $x = re_0 + sa$ where $0 \neq s$ and r in \mathbb{R} and $a \in \text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$ with $\|a\| = 1$ so $p(x)$ and all the summands in $p(x)$ are in the complex subspace of \mathbb{A}_n generated by $\{e_0, a\}$, because, Lemma 3.1 (i), (ii) and (iii).

Suppose that $x = re_0$, that is, $s = 0$, so by definition the polynomial is a real polynomial and it has at least one complex root and we may choose any $a \in S(\mathbb{A}_n)$ to immerse the polynomial into $\text{Span}\{e_0, a\}$.

Q.E.D.

Now we use what we know about the topology of the k -power map to extend the Fundamental theorem of algebra to a more general type of continuous functions than the complex polynomial in \mathbb{A}_n

Before that, we show, that some polynomials have no roots in \mathbb{A}_n .

Exmaple: For $n \geq 2$ and non-zero a in $\text{Im}(\mathbb{A}_n)$

$$p(x) = ax - xa + e_0$$

has no roots in \mathbb{A}_n . Because every commutator of this form, $[a, x] = ax - xa$ has real part equal to zero.

Definition: A generalized polynomial of degree k on \mathbb{A}_n with $k > 0$ is a continuous function $p : \mathbb{A}_n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n$ of the form

$$p(x) = x^k(e_0 + g(x)).$$

where $g(x)$ is a nonconstant continuous function, defined for non-zero elements in \mathbb{A}_n , such that $\|g(x)\| \rightarrow 0$ when $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$.

Proposition 3.3 Every complex polynomial in \mathbb{A}_n for $n \geq 1$ is a generalized polynomial in \mathbb{A}_n .

Proof: Suppose that ξ and $x \neq 0$ are \mathbb{C} -dependet in \mathbb{A}_n then by lemma 3.1 and lemma 1.5 (1) we have that

$$x^{-k}(\xi x^\ell) = (x^{-k}\xi)x^\ell = (\xi x^{-k})x^\ell = \xi(x^{-k}x^\ell) = \xi x^{-k+\ell}$$

for k in \mathbb{Z} and $\ell \geq 0$.

Therefore if $p(x) = \xi_0 + \xi_1 x + \dots + \xi_{k-1} x^{k-1} + x^k$ is a complex polynomial and $g(x) := x^{-k}(\xi_0 + \xi_1 x + \dots + \xi_k x^{k-1}) = \xi_0 x^{-k} + \xi_1 x^{-k+1} + \dots + \xi_k x^{-1}$ then $\|g(x)\| \rightarrow 0$ when $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$ and $p(x) = x^k(e_0 + g(x))$ by Lemma 3.1 (iii).

Q.E.D.

Theorem 3.4 (Fundamental theorem of algebra for \mathbb{A}_n). Every generalized polynomial has at least one root in \mathbb{A}_n , for $n \geq 1$.

Proof: Given $p(x)$ a generalized polynomial in \mathbb{A}_n define

$$\hat{p} : \mathbb{A}_n \cup \{\infty\} = S^{2^n} \rightarrow \mathbb{A}_n \cup \{\infty\} = S^{2^n}$$

with

$$\hat{p}(x) = \begin{cases} p(x) & \text{if } \|x\| < \infty \\ \infty & \text{if } x = \infty \end{cases}$$

where $\mathbb{A}_n \cup \{\infty\}$ denotes the one-point compactification of $\mathbb{A}_n = \mathbb{R}^{2^n}$.

Making the identification

$$\mathbb{A}_n \cup \{\infty\} = S^{2^n} = S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$$

where the line at infinity is $\{(0, re_0) \in \mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0\}$ so \hat{p} is a continuous map from $S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$ to $S(\mathbb{A}_n \times \mathbb{A}_0)$.

Claim: \hat{p} and ρ_k the k -power map, are homotopic.

Let us define

$$\begin{aligned} F_t(x) &= x^k(e_0 + (1-t)g(x)) \\ F_t(\infty) &= \infty \end{aligned}$$

for $0 \leq t \leq 1$. Obviously F_t is continuous on x and t and

$$F_0(x) = x^k(e_0 + g(x)) = p(x)$$

and $F_0(\infty) = \hat{p}(\infty) = \infty$ and $F_1(x) = x^k$ and $F_1(\infty) = \infty$.

Thus \hat{p} and ρ_k are homotopic.

By corollary 2.5, ρ_k has degree k then \hat{p} has degree k and \hat{p} and p are onto, so for $0 \in \mathbb{A}_n$ there is α in \mathbb{A}_n such that $p(\alpha) = 0$.

Q.E.D.

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